

## What happens to a quantum particle on a pendulum at $T = \frac{\pi}{2}$ ?

**Abstract.** This subject is the best one-hour introduction I know for the mathematical techniques that appear in quantum mechanics — in one short lecture we start with a meaningful question, visit Schrödinger’s equation, operators and exponentiation of operators, Fourier analysis, path integrals, the least action principle, and Gaussian integration, and at the end we land with a meaningful and interesting answer.

Based a lecture given by the author in the “trivial notions” seminar in Harvard on April 29, 1989. This edition, January 10, 2014.

### 1. THE QUESTION

Let the complex valued function  $\psi = \psi(t, x)$  be a solution of the Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i \left( -\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 \right) \psi \quad \text{with} \quad \psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0.$$

What is  $\psi|_{t=T=\frac{\pi}{2}}$ ?

In fact, the major part of our discussion will work just as well for the general Schrödinger equation,

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -iH\psi, \quad H = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x + V(x),$$

$$\psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0, \quad \text{arbitrary } T,$$

where,

- $\psi$  is the “wave function”, with  $|\psi(t, x)|^2$  representing the probability of finding our particle at time  $t$  in position  $x$ .
- $H$  is the “energy”, or the “Hamiltonian”.
- $-\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x$  is the “kinetic energy”.
- $V(x)$  is the “potential energy at  $x$ ”.

### 2. THE SOLUTION

The equation  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -iH\psi$  with  $\psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0$  formally implies

$$\psi(T, x) = (e^{-iTH} \psi_0)(x) = \left( e^{i\frac{T}{2} \Delta - iTV} \psi_0 \right)(x).$$

By Lemma 3.1 with  $n = 10^{58} + 17$  and setting  $x_n = x$  we find that  $\psi(T, x)$  is

$$\left( e^{i\frac{T}{2n} \Delta} e^{-i\frac{T}{n} V} e^{i\frac{T}{2n} \Delta} e^{-i\frac{T}{n} V} \dots e^{i\frac{T}{2n} \Delta} e^{-i\frac{T}{n} V} \psi_0 \right)(x_n).$$

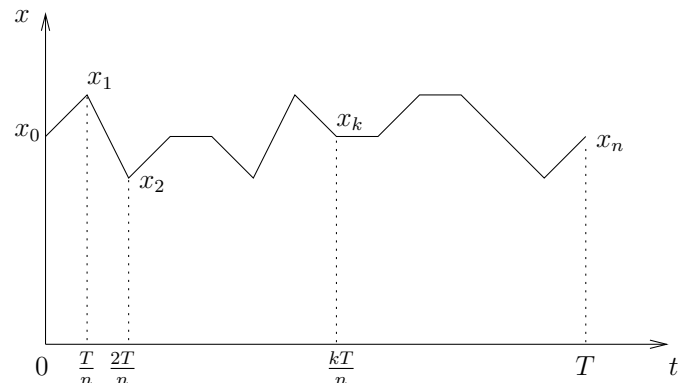
Now using Lemmas 3.2 and 3.3 we find that this is: ( $c$  denotes the ever-changing universal fixed numerical constant)

$$c \int dx_{n-1} e^{i\frac{(x_n - x_{n-1})^2}{2T/n}} e^{-i\frac{T}{N} V(x_{n-1})} \dots \int dx_1 e^{i\frac{(x_2 - x_1)^2}{2T/n}} e^{-i\frac{T}{N} V(x_1)} \int dx_0 e^{i\frac{(x_1 - x_0)^2}{2T/n}} e^{-i\frac{T}{N} V(x_0)} \psi_0(x_0).$$

Repackaging, we get

$$c \int dx_0 \dots dx_{n-1} \exp \left( i\frac{T}{2n} \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{T/n} \right)^2 - i\frac{T}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} V(x_k) \right) \psi_0(x_0).$$

Now comes the novelty. keeping in mind the picture



and replacing Riemann sums by integrals, we can write

$$\psi(T, x) = c \int_{W_{x_0 x_n}} dx_0 \int_{W_{x_0 x_n}} \mathcal{D}x \exp \left( i \int_0^T dt \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2(t) - V(x(t)) \right) \right) \psi_0(x_0),$$

where  $W_{x_0 x_n}$  denotes the space of paths that begin at  $x_0$  and end at  $x_n$ ,

$$W_{x_0 x_n} = \{x : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x(0) = x_0, x(T) = x_n\},$$

and  $\mathcal{D}x$  is the formal “path integral measure”.

This is a good time to introduce the “action”  $\mathcal{L}$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(x) := \int_0^T dt \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2(t) - V(x(t)) \right).$$

With this notation,

$$\psi(T, x) = c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) \int_{W_{x_0 x_n}} \mathcal{D}x e^{i\mathcal{L}(x)}.$$

Let  $x_c$  denote the path on which  $\mathcal{L}(x)$  attains its minimum value, write  $x = x_c + x_q$  with  $x_q \in W_{00}$ , and get

$$\psi(T, x) = c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) \int_{W_{00}} \mathcal{D}x_q e^{i\mathcal{L}(x_c + x_q)}.$$

In our particular case  $\mathcal{L}$  is quadratic in  $x$ , and therefore  $\mathcal{L}(x_c + x_q) = \mathcal{L}(x_c) + \mathcal{L}(x_q)$  (this uses the fact that  $x_c$  is an extremal of  $\mathcal{L}$ , of course). Plugging this into what we already have, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(T, x) &= c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) \int_{W_{00}} \mathcal{D}x_q e^{i\mathcal{L}(x_c) + i\mathcal{L}(x_q)} \\ &= c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) e^{i\mathcal{L}(x_c)} \int_{W_{00}} \mathcal{D}x_q e^{i\mathcal{L}(x_q)}. \end{aligned}$$

Now this is excellent news, because the remaining path integral over  $W_{00}$  does not depend on  $x_0$  or  $x_n$ , and hence it is a constant! Allowing  $c$  to change its value from line to line, we get

$$\psi(T, x) = c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) e^{i\mathcal{L}(x_c)}.$$

Lemma 3.4 now shows us that  $x_c(t) = x_0 \cos t + x_n \sin t$ . An easy explicit computation gives  $\mathcal{L}(x_c) = -x_0 x_n$ , and we arrive at our final result,

$$\psi\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, x\right) = c \int dx_0 \psi_0(x_0) e^{-ix_0 x_n}.$$

Notice that this is precisely the formula for the Fourier transform of  $\psi_0$ ! That is, the answer to the question in the title of this document is “the particle gets Fourier transformed”, whatever that may mean.

### 3. THE LEMMAS

**Lemma 3.1.** For any two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ ,

$$e^{A+B} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( e^{A/n} e^{B/n} \right)^n.$$

*Proof.* (sketch) Using Taylor expansions, we see that  $e^{\frac{A+B}{n}}$  and  $e^{A/n} e^{B/n}$  differ by terms at most proportional to  $c/n^2$ . Raising to the  $n$ th power, the two sides differ by at most  $O(1/n)$ , and thus

$$e^{A+B} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( e^{\frac{A+B}{n}} \right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( e^{A/n} e^{B/n} \right)^n,$$

as required.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.2.**

$$(e^{itV} \psi_0)(x) = e^{itV(x)} \psi_0(x).$$

**Lemma 3.3.**

$$\left( e^{i\frac{t}{2}\Delta} \psi_0 \right)(x) = c \int dx' e^{i\frac{(x-x')^2}{2t}} \psi_0(x').$$

*Proof.* In fact, the left hand side of this equality is just a solution  $\psi(t, x)$  of Schrödinger’s equation with  $V = 0$ :

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{i}{2} \Delta_x \psi, \quad \psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0.$$

Taking the Fourier transform  $\tilde{\psi}(t, p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int e^{-ipx} \psi(t, x) dx$ , we get the equation

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}}{\partial t} = -i \frac{p^2}{2} \tilde{\psi}, \quad \tilde{\psi}|_{t=0} = \tilde{\psi}_0.$$

For a fixed  $p$ , this is a simple first order linear differential equation with respect to  $t$ , and thus,

$$\tilde{\psi}(t, p) = e^{-i\frac{tp^2}{2}} \tilde{\psi}_0(p).$$

Taking the inverse Fourier transform, which takes products to convolutions and Gaussians to other Gaussians, we get what we wanted to prove.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.4.** With the notation of Section 2 and at the specific case of  $V(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$  and  $T = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , we have

$$x_c(t) = x_0 \cos t + x_n \sin t.$$

*Proof.* If  $x_c$  is a critical point of  $\mathcal{L}$  on  $W_{x_0 x_n}$ , then for any  $x_q \in W_{00}$  there should be no term in  $\mathcal{L}(x_c + \epsilon x_q)$  which is linear in  $\epsilon$ . Now recall that

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \int_0^T dt \left( \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2(t) - V(x(t)) \right),$$

so using  $V(x_c + \epsilon x_q) \sim V(x_c) + \epsilon x_q V'(x_c)$  we find that the linear term in  $\epsilon$  in  $\mathcal{L}(x_c + \epsilon x_q)$  is

$$\int_0^T dt (\dot{x}_c \dot{x}_q - V'(x_c) x_q).$$

Integrating by parts and using  $x_q(0) = x_q(T) = 0$ , this becomes

$$\int_0^T dt (-\ddot{x}_c - V'(x_c)) x_q.$$

For this integral to vanish independently of  $x_q$ , we must have  $-\ddot{x}_c - V'(x_c) \equiv 0$ , or

$$\ddot{x}_c = -V'(x_c). \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{This is the famous } F = ma \\ \text{of Newton's, and we have just} \\ \text{rediscovered the principle of} \\ \text{least action!} \end{array} \right)$$

In our particular case this boils down to the equation

$$\ddot{x}_c = -x_c, \quad x_c(0) = x_0, \quad x_c(\pi/2) = x_n,$$

whose unique solution is displayed in the statement of this lemma.  $\square$